The War Between China and Japan The first attempt to offer a consecutive and trustworthy account of the recent contest in the far East has been made in a volume published the Scribners, and entitled The China-Japan

War. The author, who writes under the pseudo yme of VLADIMIR, was evidently a member of his parrative is compiled from Japanese, Chi-Japanese authorities is ascribed not only to the sees of the literature produced by the war in Japan, but to the singular trustworthiness and impartiality of the Japanese historians. They are credited with extraordinary fairness toward their opponent, and with an entire absence of desire to exaggerate their own evements. That the contest between China and Japan ranks among the principal events of the century will by no one be disputed, but we think the writer is inclined somewhat to overrate its magnitude when he pronounces it the great war of the century. Electrifying as was its revelation of Japan's military power, the contest is scarcely comparable, we will not say with the Napoleonic wars, but even with the war between Austria and Prussia, which practically ended at Sadowa, or the war of 1870-71 between Germany and France. It is true, however, that, from some points of view, the struggle in the far East was a unique phenomenon. It was not simply a conflict between two nations but a war between the past and the presen Western civilization and a sporadio survival of the worn-out Eastern civilization Moreover, the exponent of Western civilization was a country whose first knowledge of it had en gained but thirty years before and which had taken part in no war with foreign nations for about 300 years, but which, when the test came, exhibited an army composed of soldiers ready to advance joyfully to death for the glory of their country, and of officers and Generals who had profited by the recorded experience of centuries of Western wars, and who had taken up the study of military science just as it had reached perfection at the hands of Napoleon

We pass over the sketch of the historical rela tions of China and Japan to Corea, and of the formidable invasion of the peninsular kingdon by Hideyoshi toward the close of the sixteenth century. We begin with the year 1875, when there occurred two events which then passed almost unobserved, but which now must be considered of importance, as they constituted the beginning of a line of conduct which insensibly, inevitably, led China and Japan war. The neutral strip of land which had long left uncultivated and ownerbetween China and Corea had become haunt of robbers, whose depredations scourged the neighboring Chinese districts. In the year named, Li Hung Chang sent a body of troops across the border and a gunboat to the Yalu River, thereby destroying the marauders The result of this military expedition was the formal annexation two years later of the whole neutral strip to China, whose frontier was thus having now a common boundary, became more sely connected, and the latter was for take greater interest in the affairs of its ancient hand, in September of the same year (1875) some Japanese sailors, having landed for on Kang-hwa Island, were fired upon by the Coreans. A party of thirty Japanese at once disembarked, stormed a fort, destroyed its defenders and dismantled it; in fact, they accomplished almost as much as had been pre viously performed by 600 Frenchmen under Admiral Roze and by 759 Americans under Admiral Rodgers. In the opinion of the author of this book, keen observers could even then see what advantage the Japanese would have over European troops engaged in a war against either Coreans or Chinese. After such an outrage, all parties in Japan agreed to take strong measures; China's neutrality was secured, and, the Japanese having made a great display of their ships and men in sight of Beoul, a treaty was signed on Feb. 27, 1876, opening Fusan to Japanese trade. In 1880 Chemulpo was also opened, and Japan found herself committed to a policy of progress in Cores, and, consequently, to the support of the Progressive party at Seoul, which aimed at continuing the policy inaugurated by the treaty, and wished to introduce into the Hermit Kingdom the foreign customs and learning adopted by its Eastern neighbor. The Conservative party, on the other hand, found a champion in China, and thus a state of things arose in the peninsula which was certain, so or later, to provoke a conflict between the Tokio

The first complication in Cores which the ened the peace of the three countries of the far Coreans who had been over to Japan came back ardent partisans of progress and enthusiastic promoters of Japanese influence. These ideas or Tai-Wen-kun, who was a bater of everything foreign, and he began to intrigue with the Min, a powerful faction in the peninsula. The conspirators determined to drive the Japanese out by violence, and, malicious reports against the Mikado's subjects being spread about Scoul, a furious mob began to bunt to death all of them that could be found. A Japanese officer who had been drilling the Corean troops and sever others of his countrymen were murdered in one day. The legation was attacked and burned and the Minister, with twenty-eight Japanese had to fight his way through the streets of Seoul and through the open country to the sea, where they embarked on a junk and were picked up by British gunboat, which took them to Nagasaki. The Japanese Government at once took measures to obtain redress for the outrage; troops were got ready for any emergency, and the Mi ister was sent back to Seoul with a military force. The Chinese also sent a body of troops to Corea, but, according to the author of this book, it was not with the object of opposing the Japanese; it was with the laudable intention of making a serious effort to establish peace the distracted country. It is, deed, a matter of fact that, as soon as the se had obtained satisfaction, the Chinese laid hands upon the Tai-Wen-kun, the chief originator of mischief in the peninsula, and conveyed him to China, where he was detained for several years. The Corean Government had to Japan, to pay an indemnity to the families of the victims, and to allow a certain number of China continued to assert her suze-Japanese soldiers to remain in Seoul for the rainty and Japan persisted in denying protection of the legation. In consequence of this last concession. China also stationed a body of troops in the capital.

The peace thus established lasted only a little over two years. Members of the Min faction still occupied the most important posts in the Government, and this was resented by the Pro gressive party, who, seeing they could not triumph by pacific means, resolved to have re course to violence. On a night in December, 1884, Prince Min and several of the Conservative Ministers werp killed, and the next morning a new Government was formed by Kim-Okand other members of the Progressive party, who invited the Japanese troops to protect the royal palace. The Min party, however, soon recovered from the blow, and with the as sistance of the Chinese troops attacked the Japanese. The King fled during the and the Japanese thus lost all motive for continuing to defend palace, as they were no longer supported by the only generally recognized authority of the They, accordingly, retreated to their legation, fighting their way through the streets The scenes of 1882 were now enacted on a larger scale. The legation was attacked and burned. and the Japanese soldiers, forming in a square, out their way with characteristic bravery coul to the sea. This second disturbance in the rean capital resembled, in many particulars.

which had taken place two years before, but as we have said, much graver, and threathave more serious consequences. The two countries in a war. The Japanese, with | that it would have been better for China to have | triumphant march through China, which he

their habitual skill in discrimination, set them selves to settle the two questions separately. A Minister was sent to Corea to obtain redress from the Seoul Government, and conc similar to those embodied in the convention of 1882 were exacted and granted. Corea had to apologize, to pay an indemnity, to punish the murderers of a Japanese officer, and to rebuild the legation at her own expense. After thus settling with the Hermit Kingdom Japan sent Count Ito and a special embassy to negotiate with China, which, on her side, appo Li Hung Chang as her plenipotentiary. On the 18th of April, 1885, the Tientain convention was signed. It consisted of three articles. The first stipulated that both countries should withdraw their troops from Cores; the second, that no more officers should be sent by either country to drill the Corean troops; the third, that arise as should render it desirable for either country to send troops to Corea, it must inform the other country. The Tientsin convention procured peace in Corea for nine years.

HI.

On March 28, 1894, the pacific residents of Shanghai were startled by the news that a political assassination of an extraordinary character Kim-Ok-Kinn, the leader of the abortive Corean revolution of 1884, had fled to Japan after the defeat of his party, and had lived there up to March, 1894. At that time he was decoyed to Shanghai, and was there murdered by a fellow Corean, one Hung Tjyong-Ou, an emissary of the Conservative party at Seoul. Hung was given up to the Chinese authorities, and so was the body of Kim-Ok-Kiun, which the Japanese servant of the murdered man had desired t take back to Japan. Instead of being punished. Hung was surreptitiously put on board Chinese man-of-war, together with the body of his victim, and conveyed to Corea. On their arrival in the peninsula, rich rethe body of Kim-Ok-Kinn was quartered, and the mutilated fragments were exposed different provinces of the kingdom. The delivery of Hung and the body of Kim to the Chinese authorities by the consular body controlling the foreign settlement at Shanghal, is denounced by the author of this book as a foolish and base action; it is his conviction that this false step was the primary cause of that acute state of tween China and Japan. Simultaneously with this incident occurred the outbreak in Corea of the Tong-Haks, or votaries of the so-called Eastern doctrine, who were organized reactionists against the Roman Catholics in particular and foreigners in general. Br May, 1894, the insurrection had become very serious. It had spread widely in the three southern provinces, and in one place alone the Tong-Haks were said to be 30,000 strong. In a battle with the Govern ment troops the rebels were completely success ful, and their victory caused the greatest con-sternation in the capital. The most extraordinary rumors circulated among the idle and ignorant people of Corea. It was said that in the vanguard of the Tong-Haks, leading them

to triumph, could be seen a misty figure with a

white helmet and cuirass, which was believed

to be the ghost of Kim-Ok-Kiun. It was nat-

ural that all those who had been friendly to the

murdered politician, or who hated the Min fac-

tion, should see a retribution brought about by

superhuman means in the revolution which so

quickly followed his death and the dismember ment of his body. The Min faction were so frightened by the news of the defeat of the Government soldiers and of the ensuing capture of the provincia capital of Chölla, that they resolved to ask China for troops to quell the rebellion. By the third article of the Tientsin convention, Japan had an equal right in such an emergency to send troops to Corea, but it was hoped that the Japanese Government was too much worried at home by parliamentary opposition to pay much attention to foreign complications. The application to China was made on the 1st day of June. 1894, and, on the 8th of that month, a small Chinese force was landed at Asan; some additional troops were sent a few days later, and then the Chinese soldier numbered probably about 2,000 men. The Chinese Government also sent two men-of-war to Asan and three to Chemulpo, the seaport of the Corean capital. The Japanese Government had been informed by China that a force was being sent to Cores, and, profiting by the third clause of the Tientsin convention, was resolved to follow the same course. Otori, the Japanese Minister to Seoul, who was then in Japan on leave. received orders to rejoin his post, and he made such despatch that on June 9 he arrived in Chemulpo. In that port there were then six Japanese men-of-war, and a body of marines was landed to escort Otori to the capital. This was forming a much larger force to guard her East occurred in July, 1882. A number of interests in Corea: on June 5 orders had been issued to the military and naval authorities to organize an expedition for the neighboring peninsula. It was composed of troops of the were not favorably received by the ex-Regent | Fifth Division, under the command of Major-General Oshima, and from its irregular formstion it acquired the name of Mixed Brigade, name which the exploits of the war was to render familiar throughout Japan. The military preparations were carried out with such rapidity that the first detachment able to leave Ujima (the port of Hiroshims, headquarters of the Fifth Division on the 9th of June. Three days later this detachment reached Chemulpo, and proceeded at once to the capital. Other detachments arrived presently, and it has been asserted that, before the outbreak of hostilities, the Japanese had 8,000 men around Seoul; this number is con-

> tion, but he deems it certain that they had a force superior to that of the Chinese in Asan. The simultaneous presence of the Chinese and Japanese soldiers in Corea created a situation full of difficulties, which were increased by mutual distrust. Even in diplomatic corre ondence the two countries were unable to find a common basis for discussion. The Chinese Government, though communicating the departure of their troops for Cores, in compliance with the Tientein convention, considered it had a special right to send troops, as Corea was ributary country and had asked for assistance. The Japanese Government, on the other hand, maintained that the Tientsin convention gave each of the two countries an equal right to send troops, and it refused to recognize Corea as a tributary State of China. On this point no agreement proved attainable; it. By the treaty of 1876 Japan had renoun her own claim to suzerainty, and had treated with the Hermit Kingdom as if the latter were an independent power, thus virtually ignoring China's protectorate. In the succeeding treaties Corea had always informed European nations of China's suzerainty, adding, however, that such overlordship did not affect her sovereign rights, either in internal or foreign affairs, nor limit her powers of treaty making. Touching this question of suzerainty, the people of Japa were quite as sensitive as their Government and an unlucky proclamation of the Chines-General at Asan, in which Corea was described as a tributary State of China, was loudly de nounced in the Japanese press and aroused great indignation.

sidered by the author of this book an exaggera-

Another difficulty arose in the course of negotiations. The Japanese Government considered the Tong-Hak movement no accidental occurrence, but an inevitable consequence of the in veterate misgovernment of the country, and argued that the existing rebellion could not be suppressed, nor a recurrence of it averted unless radical reforms were carried Corea. Japan accordingly proposed that re-forms should be instituted, and invited China to assist her in enforcing them. In the judgment of the author of the book before us, the suggestion of the Tokio Government, which had thus created another difficulty was a very clever move. It placed China dilemma. The misgovernment of Corea was evident and undeniable, yet China could not act against the members of the party which caused it, because they were Avenuet, not by a Corean mob alone, but her friends, and she had sent troops to support them. The author is, nevertheless, convinced

accepted Japan's proposal, for Corea is a poor country, not worth a war, and the nominal suzerainty was only a question of puerile vanity. He adds that, besides showing greater diplo-matic ability. Japan possessed great political and military advantages from the beginning of the crisis. While the Chinese had only a small force in an obscure corner of the country, the Japanese were masters of the capital, and had the Government under their control. They lost no time in using these advantages. Their Minister at Seoul, Otori, insisted that reforms should be carried out, and obtained the nomination of a special Commission to that effect. The Coreans themselves, however, while ostensibly yielding to Otori's importunities, had no real desire to effect a thorough reorganization of their coun try. They procrastinated, and eventually answered that the reforms should not be initiated until the Japanese troops had left Corea. The situation then became very grave. Neither China nor Japan would yield, and Corea hesitated in coming to a decision. By the latter half of July the prospects of peace were almost hopeless. It was only a matter of speculation what incident would precipitate hostilities. On July 16 the Chinese Government asked Japan to send no nore men-of-war to the treaty ports, and, on the 24th of the same month, it was known in Shanghal that the Japanese Government had promised not to include that port in their sphere o military operations.

The march of events was now very rapid. On July 18, 1894, the Seoul Government informed Otori, the Japanese Minister, that the present of a large body of Japanese soldiers troubled the minds of the people, and that they could not undertake the desired reforms until after the Japanese troops had been withdrawn. On the 19th the Chinese Minister, who had been at Seoul since 1885, and who was suspected by the Japanese of encouraging the Coreans in their resistance, left the capital and returned to China. On the following day Otori sent an ultimatum to the Corean Government requiring the immediate dismissal of the Chinese soldiers at Asan, and declaring that, unless be received a satisfactory answer in two days, Japan would carry out the reforms by force. On the night of July 22, the Corean Government replied that the Chinese troops had come at their request, and would not leave until similarly reuested. Orders were at once given to the Jananese troops encamped near the capital to at tack the King's palace next morning. The order was promptly executed, and, after a short engagement, the Japanese became masters of Seoul and of the person of the King. The Min party were driven out and replaced by progressive politicians, who at once invited the Japanese to drive out the Chinese from Asan. It was now a question of only a few days when hostilities would break out between China and Japan. But, as it happened, it was not a military but a naval collision which began the war.

III.

We cannot undertake to follow in detail the author's account of the sinking of the Kowshing, the British steamer which was bringing to Asan a reënforcement of 1,200 Chinese sol diers. Neither can we do more than glance a some of the conclusions embodied in the 200 pages which describe the subsequent military and naval operations, namely, the Asan campaign and the capture of the Corean strong hold, Phyong-Yang; the invasion of Manchuris by the first Japanese army; the campaign of the second Japanese army in the Regent's Sword peninsula, ending in the capture of Port Arthur and, finally, the campaign of a third Japanese army on the mainland of China proper, which resulted in the capture of the naval stronghold of Wel-Hal-Wel and of the Chinese ironclads. The narrative ends with a description of the first, insincere and abortive, attempt at negotiations on the part of China, and of the second and successful peace embassy headed by Li-

In even the briefest notice of this book, the author's comments on the significance of the principal events deserve particular attention. quences of the victory at Phyong-yang were enormous. The strongest city of Corea had been taken in a day by the admirably adjusted converging movements of four Japanese de tachments: the great Chinese army which was to enter Seoul had been dispersed; all hopes of assistance from China were lost by the Conservative party in Corea. With the battle around Phyong-yang the Corean campaign may be said to have been finished; no further resistance was offered by the Hermit Kingdon while the Chinese retired beyond the Yalu River to defend the frontiers of their own empire. Hostilities had only begun on the 25th of July, 1894; yet, by the 15th of Septem ber, or in less than two months, Corea was conquered, and at a very trifling cost of life. It is estimated that in battle, or from wounds and sickness, the Japanese but 663 men in the peninsula. Those who are surprised at the rapid success of the Mikado's subjects are reminded that the latter's ancestors, three centuries before, had been almost a expeditious. In a little over two months from the date of landing, Hideyoshi's General, Konishi, had taken Phyong-yang, although he had to march his troops across country, having no steamers wherewith to conver them quickly to convenient landing places on the coast. The difference lies in the sequel. While the Japanese invasion of the sixteenth century stopped short at Phyong-yang, which marked their last great success; in the war of the nineteenth century, the battle of Phyong-yang was only the first of a series of brilliant victories. The remarks on the naval battle of Hal-yang

Island, which took place on Sept. 17, 1894, are

likely to impress'the reader as those of a compe tent naval critic. Admiral Ito, who command ed the Japanese ships in this engagement has been blained for not having destroyed the whole Chinese fleet. The truth is that history offers few examples of the destruction of an entire fleet; when such destruction occurs, as at the battle of the Nile, it will be noticed that the fleet was at anchor, or had its movements cramped by the land. Even in such memorable nat al victories as those won at Salamis and Lepanto, a large number of vessels succeeded in escaping. At Hai-yang Island the Chinese lost four vessels, nearly a third of their fighting force, and, when we consider that most of the naval battles of the last century were decided by the loss of only a small part of one of the fleets, we must recognize that the Chinese suffered a crushing defeat. It must also be borne in mind that Admiral Ito had in his squadron three weak vessels which hampered his movements, yet he succeeded in not losing one of them, though one was a merchant steame that could have been disabled by a single lucky shot in the engine, and another a gunboatef about 600 tons. The author of this book deems it hard to say what the Japanese might not have achieved but for the necessity of caring for these vessels. It is further to be noted that they had no torpedo boats, and, when one considers how effectively the Japanese handled these craft a few months later at Wel-Hal-Wel, it may be fairly inferred that, had any of them been present at Hai-yang Island, very few of the Chinese Sept. 17. The author does not hesitate to express a profound admiration for Admiral Ito when one observes how, surmounting all the difficulties which have been named, he showed his ability to win the battle by a series of beautiful evolutions which, while guarding the weak vessels, had always for their ultimate aim the pected to meet the Chinese, and, conse on the spur of the moment, his merit is the more surprising. He had, in the course of about an hour, to conceive evolutions for which he had no historical precedent, as no considerable naval battle had yet been fought between fronclads, and none with quickfiring guns. It is submitted that, by its originality, the battle at Hal-yang Island challenges the attention of all students of naval tactics, and it is pronounced truly wonderful that lessons in modern naval warfare should be given by Japan, a nation which a little over thirty years ago bossessed nothing but a fleet of junks. It is certain that this naval victory exercised great influence over the whole war. In the

Japanese campaign of 1502, Konishi, after the

capture of Phyong-yang, was arrested in the

neditated, by the failure of the Japanese fleet to cooperate with him after its defeat at the Island of Ko-je. That was the turn ing point in the Japanese invasion of the sixteenth century. The author of this book would not attribute so exaggerated an importance to sea power as to assert that, without the victory at Hai-yang Island, the Japanese campaign in China during the present contest would have failed. So overwhelming was Japan's military superiority and so complete was China's collapse, that probably no single event could have altered the fortunes of the war. But the crushing defeat of the Chinese navy and the consequent command of the sea acquired at the outset by the Japanese facilitated all the operations of the latter, and enabled them to land their armies when and where they chose, and to devise and execute plans of campaign which would have been too hazardous in the absence of naval supremacy. For this reason it is that, though the battle of Hai-yang Island was fought only two days after the battle at Phyong-yang, and although all the Japanese troops were still in Corea and remained there for over a month longer before invading the Middle Kingdom this naval engagement is, in this book, placed at the beginning of the campaign in China. The naval victory had no influence over the Corean campaign, which had already been decided two days before, but it was a most important factor in the next campaign of the Japanese, and contributed to their brilliant success.

A chapter is devoted to the capture in a single day of the huge and presumably impregnable naval fortress of Port Arthur, by the second Japanese army under Marshal Oyama. This wonderful result is attributed to a fundamental error of the Chinese, who imagined that war consists in preparing a vast amount of first class war material without any regard to the ques-tion whether the soldiers that are to use it are a mere undisciplined rabble, enlisted at a moment's warning. The author notes that the Chinese fired their guns willingly enough, but did not employ much infantry fire; when they did use their rifles it must have been at very long range if we may judge from the small proportion of killed to wounded among the Japanese troops. By the fall of Port Arthur the Japanese were placed in pos-session of the best dockyard in the far East, provided with every mechanism for repairing ships of war. They had now a splendid It is calculated that the machinery, docks, &c., at Port Arthur represented a value of sixty million yen, or about thirty million dollars in gold. All this was purchased at a very small cost of life; there were, indeed, but 270 Japanese placed hors de combat, of whom the ridiculously small number of 18 represent those actually killed in battle, though many, of course, afterward succumbed to their wounds. The Chi nese, on their part, lost over 1,000 killed. Our readers will remember the sensation which the fall of Fort Arthur produced. Not only onlookers in the West, but the foreigners residing in the far East had been inclined to sepreciate the Japanese victories. These had been won in obscure corners of Corea and the Chinese frontier, and the Japanese account were suspected of exaggeration. It was also assumed that China had not had time to pu forth her whole strength, and the belief was general that, with a few months of preparation the Chinese could repulse any Japanese attack on such a formidable fortress as Port Arthur All these surmises were refuted by one day's fighting. Now, for the first time, at Pekin, serious alarm was felt. The despised enemy seemed at the gates. An attempt was hur riedly made to avert the imminent danger, and a peace mission was projected. But Chinese love of subterfuge was not yet crushed, and instead of sending well-known statesmen with full powers, a few irresponsible Europeans with inadequate credentials were despatched to

mission as an insult to the national dignity. The Wei-hal-Wei campaign was very short The first troops belonging to the third Japanese army landed near the city of Yung-cheng, or the mainland of China proper, on the 20th of January, 1895. On the 16th of February they weeks the army had disembarked, advanced, attacked, and won the place. The actual fight ing only lasted two weeks, from the 30th of January to the 12th of February, and it would not have lasted so long but for the violent storms, which suspended all operations for two days and gave the brave Chinese Admiral Tine time to destroy the guns in the western forts which would have given his ships much trouble. The capture of this great naval fortress was the indeed, was wanting to enhance the spectacular effect. The hills encircling the bay form a gigantic amphitheatre, from which the vicissitudes of the struggle could be observed; military attachés and naval officers from men of war be longing to the principal navies of the world followed with intense curiosity all the operations; and the Japanese, conscious that they were acting before a gallery of nations, determined to lisplay, day by day, all the resources of their skill and daring. Nulla dies sine linea was the motto which governed their actions. The stub born resistance offered by the Chinese on Liubook the defence of the island of Sphacteria in the Peloponnesian war, so vividly described by Thucydides, lent an element of tempo rary uncertainty which rendered the interest more intense. In the space of a few days the Japanese exhibited all the methods of modern warfare by land and sear dashing assaults on the forts, the skilful handling of guns and ships, daring torpedo attacks which strewed the har bor with sunken hulls. Never did the Japanese relax their relentless hold upon the foredoome fleet until the inevitable surrender came. Then followed the striking correspondence between the Admirals; the tragic fate of Ting, a victim to the woful defects of his country's adminis trative methods, and the imposing scene presented when the Japanese officers revere stood beside the bier of their brave but unfor-

Japan. The Tokio Government naturally re-

fused to open negotiations with such envoys,

and politely sent them back; the Japanese pe

ple were indignant, and considered the sham

In the author's eyes, the amazing military successes of Japan are of such a peculiar nature and suggest such complex considerations that a careful analysis is necessary, and this is attempted in a final chapter. The fact is dwelt upon that, since the capture of Constantinople in 1453 and the rise of the Osmanli power which threatened Christian Europe for upward of two centuries, the world has not witnessed the upgrowth of military force in an Eastern people. It is also to be noted that the power demonstrated by the Japanese is of a far higher order than was that of the Osmanii Turks. The latter achieved their conquests by numbers and the courage of fanaticism, and they generally had to rely on the assistance of renegade Christians in the skilled departments of warfare; the Japanese, on the other hand, had conducted their military operations on scientific principles, and were not aided by a single European officer. If the accessories of warfare be considered, no comparison is possible; the conquests of the Ottoman Turks were disfigured by wholesale massacres and outrages of every kind, whereas the Japanese have shown a moderation and a humanity which would honor any Christian nation. The writer this book, who speaks with the authority often of an eyewitness, and always of a person were never illtreated, and that the ambu lances and field hospitals extended the kindly treatment to the wounded of both If heed is given, finally, to the numerical disparity of the two nations, we must look back to the conquests of Alexander, and of the British in India to find an historical parallel, as there is little doubt that, if left to themselves, the Japanese could have conquered the whole Chinese empire. There is one more feature in the war which deserves attention: thu whole invading force had to be transported by sea. In the course of a few months Japan We must go back to the Punic wars to find a | tion of a short period during which he was sent nation that has exhibited such a mighty effort. I to gain experience of the third arm, the artii-

This was done, moreover, with a fleet but little. if at all, superior to the enemy's, and with transport steamers, most of which were pur-

chased during the war. It must, to be sure, be acknowledged tha the rapid successes of the Japanese should be discounted by the fact that the contest was undertaken against an unwarlike people, destitute of military organization. I should, nevertheless, be remembered that the absence of any efficient military resistance was compensated by obstacles of another nature; the want of roads, the difficult country, and the severe weather prevailing during the latter part of the campaign. The rapid surmounting of these obstructions by a nation carrying on a war across the sea demonstrate that Japan possesses a very efficient military organization and a commissariat which can pro vide against any emergency. The Japanese themselves were not surprised at their triumphs and only found matter for astonishment in the fact that foreigners should ever have doubted the result. To the world the war has been a revelation of

the power of Japan, and has gained for her universal recognition as a great civilized nation Those, however, who have been able to watch closely this enterprising people, are aware that their military development is but part of their general progress. There are many other facts less known which are, perhaps, more important Japan has carried on a costly war without any assistance from foreign loans, entirely with her own financial resources, and has bought, during the few months the struggle lasted, 120,000 of shipping. The country did not feel the strain, and trade continued to flourish. The Japanese manufactures are steadily improving, and there is hardly an article produced in Europe or the United States which cannot be now made in Japan. In science she is advancing rapidly; an officer o her army has invented a rifle, and, when the plague broke out at Hong Kong in 1884, Japan ese experts were sent to make bacteriological studies on the disease; during the war Dr. Kikushi, Surgeon-in-Chief of the Second Army discovered that the ashes from burned straw (material easily procurable, and necessarily clean from the process it has undergone) could be advantageously substituted for the limbandages advocated in France for the treatmen

Far above all these material results must be placed the magnificent outborsts of patriotism pervading all ranks of society which were occafelt and acted like one man: the political par during the struggle and all yied in arder and self-sacrifice. A country which has shown such sentiments has demonstrated the possession of the chief element of national greatness.

The German Emperor.

A timely and interesting addition to the "Public Men of To-Day" series is the volume entitled, The German Emperor, William II., by CHARLES LOWE (Frederick Warne & Co.). The author is already known to American reader by his biography of Prince Bismarck, which was afterward followed by a compilation of "Bismarck's Table Talk." In the compass of 274 pages the book before us reviews the life of the present head of the German empire from his birth in 1859 ap to the opening of the Kiel Canal. The biographer gives a full account of his subject's early training, and throws light on many obscure questions connected with his pub lic life. Among these may be mentioned the following: Is it true that William II, under values the blessings of peace, and, therefore, should be regarded as a disturbing element in Europe? Is it true that he intrigued to prevent the assumption of the Prussian and im perial crowns by his father? Was he justified in dismissing from office his veteran Chancellor What, finally, is the real nature of the German Kaiser's feeling with regard to Russia, on the one hand, and England on the other?

There is no doubt that in the education of Prince William, the influence of his mother was always paramount, and this was exerted in

favor of an up-bringing for her sons as purely English as was compatible with their propara tion for their career as German Princes. In particular, they had a great advantage over other German boys in respect of the open-air sports which, during the summer, formed their habitual relaxation. Prince William very soon learned to row, to swim, to skate, to ride, to fence, and to shoot, in all of which manly exercises he excelled in spite of his being practically confined to the use of one arm, the right. By the strength of two, and Lord Ampthill used to say that to shake hands with the Prince was like being in the grip of Götz von Berlichingen of the Iron Hand. On completing his tenth year, Prince William, in conformity with the custom of his house, was ceremoniously enrolled in the army as Second Lieutenant in the First Foot Guards at Potsdam. To strut with drawn sword on the flank of the leading com pany of this regiment, and to move the mirth of the speciators by trying to keep pace with the long and prancing parade step of these lange Kerle was the task which the boy was frequent ly taken from the school room to perform in order to remind him that, above all things, he was Hohenzollern, and that bayonets had ever play ed a more important part than books in the building up of his house. At the same time books certainly formed

much more conspicuous element in the education of Prince William than they had ever don before with any member of his family. The ruler of a constitutional monarchy at the clos of the nineteenth century needs to be a very different stamp of man from that which sufficed a hundred years ago. Mindful of this fact, the Prince's parents determined to give him the benefit of a public school education, the better to prepare him for his future career. This decision upon their part gave a shock to the con servative old Emperor William I., but the only modification of the democratic proposal that the grandfather could obtain was that the Prince's achool fellows in any particular class should not exceed a score. He was, accordingly, sent to the Gymnasium at Cassel, where he re nained from his fifteenth to his eighteenth year. We are told that here he proved a diligent though not a very brilliant pupil. He strove to do too many things to achieve pre-eminence in any one of them. His favorite study was history, especially German history, and literature, science seems to have found but little favor in On leaving the Gymnas'um, the Prince, like other boys, was compelled to submit to an examination, and out of seventeen candidates for leave to pass on to the university he came out tenth, with the certificate "satis factory." To him, however, was awarded one of the sliver medals given to the three " worthi est and most diligent " Brat-form boys. After several months' service with his regiment Prince William proceeded to the Unitures selected for him by Dr. Falk, the author of the famous May laws. The subjects to which he gave particular attention at Bonn were the political history of the nineteenth century, church history, political economy, and finance Study was not the only thing to which he applied himself at the university. He became zealous member of the "Horussia," the crack fighting club or corps of the place, donning its its smoking concerts and duels of princtillo.

Although he was not himself permitted to take any part in these personal combats, he became an ardent and admit practitioner of the art of fencing, and so enthusiastic an admirer of the duello, as practised at the German universities, that he afterward lent the weight of his sovereign authority to the encouragement of a custom which, strictly speaking, is forbidden by the law of the land. After leaving the uni-

versity the Prince devoted himself with

fervor to his military duties. At first he

served with the First Foot Guards, and

the Guard, with whom he continued

was then transferred to

lory. "Never," wrote Dr. Hinsteter, "had any parent fitness, from the physical point of view, for becoming a brilliant and dashing cavairy ficer than young Prince William. Yet he had become that by exerting himself to the utmost. and by converting his natural weakness into a source of energy and strength, so that when at last he led his hussar regiment past his keenly observant grandfather, his uncle, Prince Frederick Charles, so famous and so dreaded by him as a cavalry critic, could not help saying, haif in praise and half in apology: 'You have done very well; I should never have believed it." There is no doubt that the pupil of Cassel and the student at Bonn eventually became one of the most painstaking and dashing officers in the Prussian army. His whole soul was in his work; he studied theory as well as practice, and even went so far in his researches into the field of military art as to deliver a lecture on the mani-

ple tactics of the Romans.

It seems safe to say that few men of his time have spent a more industrious youth than Wil-Conscious of his coming heritage, though unaware that it would come to him so oon, he left nothing undone to fit himself for his high career. Scarcely had he settled down with his regiment at Potsdam before he begged his grandfather to give him an opportunity of ecoming thoroughly acquainted with the administrative system of Prussia, its provincial and communal machinery of government; and for a whole winter, concurrently with his military service, he applied himself to the practical mastery of this subject under the civil Govof Brandenburg. To these labors he added a stiff course of instruction under the Minister of Finance; and, having thus mastered the administrative system of the Prussia monarchy, he next set himself to study the management of the empire's foreign affairs. For this purpose he got himself "commanded to do service" in the Foreign Office during the winter of 1886-87, and for six months he sat as a docile and admiring pupil at the feet of the greatest statesman of his time.

II. Prince William had just completed his course

of instruction in statecraft under the immediate

care of Blemarck, when his father, the Crown Prince Frederick, then in his fifty-sixth year, was selzed with a mysterious illness (January ance in his throat, and half a dozen Germa doctors came to the unanimous conclusion that the patient was suffering from cancer. Mani the disease were to be stayed and the life of the hitherto, as a rule, proved to be harmless and successful in similar cases, was decided on; but at the last moment an English specialist Dr. Morell Mackenzie, was called in, and bis verdict was that the Crown Prince was suffering not from cancer, but from a mere wart on one of his vocal cords. Thus it came to pass that the surgical operation which, if performed at this stage, would in all probability have added years to the Prince's life, was deferred. In the malignant nature of the malady Mackenzie refused to believe until proof positive had been placed before him by the microscopic analysis of the famous anatomist, Prof. Virchow. Ultimately, even the Mackenzie set of doctors all acknowledged that the disease was cancer. There is every reason to believe that Prince William shared the bitter feeling of resentment

toward the English medical attendant of his

father which swept over Germany like a storm.

There was absolutely no ground, however, fo the imputation that the prince was at the head of a conspiracy to prevent his mortally stricken father from succeeding to the throne in the event of its becoming vacant by the death of the old Emperor. The whole story is pronounced by Mr. Lowe a baseless fabrication, nor does he deem it a whit more credible because it was subsequently tricked out afresh in a malevolent magazine article on the "Bismarck Dynasty," from the pen of an anonymous but well-known fournalist to whom the German Chancellor had brusquely denied an interview, and who then, with the petty spitefulness peculiar to some of his tribe, replied with a torrent of slander to the slamming of the door upon him. There had been unquestionably some discussion of the question whether the afflicted Crown Prince should waive his right to ascend the throne this question, however, had been raised by no on but the Crown Prince himself. We have the authority of his biographer, Freytag, for saying that, long before he was finally stricken own, the Crown Prince, in his glo ments, had repeatedly spoken of renouncing the throne altogether in favor of his son. If thus he spoke while as yet his body was whole, express himself in the same sense when his body had become unsound? As a matter of fact, he did then so express hi by an official statement reproduced in the book before us. There is not an atom of proof that Prince William himself was ever a party to any scheme for keeping his father from the throne; though it is probable that he may have looked upon his father as having been brought to the throne by a plot to deceive him as to his true condition, and to place upon his head a crown which, in a certain contingency, he had distinctly declared his determination to renounce

It is not surprising that the seal and enthuslasm which Prince William displayed in conection with the passage of the Army bill in March, 1888, should have produced a popular belief that he was a young man devoured by military ambition, and capable of plunging his country into war for the mere sake of glory. which Frederick the Great confessed had been the sole motive for his first Silesian campaign. To all such interpretations of his character, the Prince himself, while still but 29 years of age, returned the following answer at a banquet given by the Provincial Diet of Brandenburg: "In my rides through Brandenburg, in the course of the manœuvres, the flourishing fields and the trades which I found in full activity, clearly showed me where the true foundations of national prosperity and fruitful labor are to be found. I am well aware that the public at large, especially abroad, imputes to me a thoughtless inclination for war, and a craving for glory. God preserve me from such criminal levity! I repudiate such imputations with indignation." It must be admitted, on the other hand, that some of his later addresses seem susceptible of a bellicose construction. Again and again, in his speeches, the French have been significantly reminded of the exceeding sharpness of the German sword; of Waterloo, where the "warriors of Prussia and Britain, standing shoulder to shoulder, had crushed the hereditary foe;" of Arcis-sur-Aube, where the banded hosts of Russia and Prussia had overwhelmed the legions of Napoleon; of Mars-la-Tour, where the heroic men of Brandenburg had held at bay a Gallic army five times their number: of Mainlaquet, where the English and Prussians, lighting shoulder to shoulder, had burst asunder the ranks of Marshal Villars; and of Erfort, whence " had emanated the lightning flash of revenge which dashed to the ground the Corsican parvenu who had humbled to the dust and outraged the Prussian people in such a shocking manner." Nor were the French ever allowed to indulge in undisturbed areams of recovering Alsane-Lorrame. It is but justice, however, to recall, on the other side, the many little acts of courtesy, and even of mag-nanimity, by which the Emperor, from time to time, has sought to conciliate the French people; the military honors, for example, that were paid to the boiles of Caraot, the great organ-izer of the armies of revolutionary France, and the grandfather of a President of the Third republic, when the remains were transferred from Magdeburg to France: the wreath sent by Wil-liam 11, to be laid upon the bler of Marchai MacMahon, at once the hero and the victim of Sedan; his me-sage o' condolence on the death of Marshal Caurobert, who had worked the Pression Guards such awful woe at St. Privat: his touching telegram of sympathy on the assassination of President Carnot, and the pardoning of two French officers, who had been sentenced as spies, on the day of the funeral; the marked attention shown by the Kaiser to Jules Simon at the Labor Conference in Berlin; his relaxation of the very stringent passport | rebuilt in the spring-

rales in Alsace-Lorraine affecting travellers rom France; and a hundred other little ties and compliments.

IV. The Emperor, William II., has never forgotten the injunction of his dying grandfathento trea Russia with the greatest consideration. It must be owned, nevertheless, that his advances were not received with much geniality until the customs war between Russia and Germany was put an end to by the commercial treaty concluded in 1894. Since that time the relations of the German and Russian overeigns have been extremely friendly. The German Kalser had always entertained an honest liking for the Czarevitch, who is now Nicholas II., and nothin seems to have given him greater pleasure than the engagement of his own first cousin, Princes Alix of Hesse, to the Grand Duke. The proof of the cordiality of the relations which have since existed between the courts of Berlin and St. Petersburg is furnished by the fact that Ger many went the length of supporting Russia in her determination to deprive the Japanese o some of the spoils of their war with Chins. It is true that France, also, was a party to the diplomatic combination whereby Japan was deprived of the foothold which she had secured on the Liau-Tung peninsula. It is possible however, that France joined the coalition, only on perceiving that her abstention would have the effect of throwing her Russian ally into the

arms of Germany. This book was written before the Kalser's nessage of congratulation was sent to President Kringer of the South African Republic, Mr. Lowe records, indeed, the fact that, at the beginning of the reign of William II., many of his ubjects exulted in the assumption that he was strongly Anglophobe. Subsequently, they made it a grievance that his Majesty was too much of an Anglophile. Their complaints have been that their Emperor has shown, at times, a disposition to cultivate the friendship of the English in a manner so persistent and ostentatious as cause unnecessary irritation to Russia. There is now but little ground for such complaints, The notion prematurely expressed by the author of this book that the German Kaiser prizes the friendship of England above that of any country is not reconcilable with his nullification of the Congo treaty, concluded in May, 1894, between Belgium and England, much less with the pro-Russian attitude of the German Ambas sador at Constantinople.

OVERWHELMED BY AN AVALANCHE A Stamp Mill in Alaska Completely

Wrecked by a Mountain Snowellde, From the Alaska Neses.

Mining men in particular and citizens in general were horrified Tuesday morning upon the arrival of Oscar Aaronson, an employee of the Nowell Gold Mining Company in Uppe Silver Bow Basin, who brought the report that the mill and other houses adjoining the Juneau Mining and Manufacturing Company, commonly called the upper Ebner mill, situ ated almost at the head of Gold Creek, had been swept away by some means or other, and not a vestige of it remained visible, excepting viewed from the distance from which he saw it, what appeared to be some heavy timbers standing upright in the snow. To have gone to the site of the mill from where he stood would have been an extremely hazardous undertaking, on account of the ground necessary to cross, and would have required as much time as it did to travel to Juneau.

On his way to town he met Mr. William Eb ner and Henry Jones, who were en route on snow shoes to the Ebner Gold Mining Com pany's property. After hearing the news of the catastrophe, they pushed on to the scene of the accident, and Aaronson, upon arriving in the city, at once informed B. M. Behrends who is receiver for the J. M. and M. Company, He at once sent a couple of men to investigate They returned the same evening and confirmed the reports. A crew of men were sent up to recover, if possible, the body of the watchman, John F. Pearl, who had been buried be neath the terrible avalanche.

The mill was built in 1890, and on account of its close proximity to high and precipitous mountains, particular attention was paid in its location to avoid any possibility of receiving damage from possible snow slides. Icy Gulch, which is about a quarter of a mile below, is the scene of frequent slides, but they never cause damage to property situated above it. On the left-nand side of the mill site small slides occur every winter, but never have reached the spot where the mill formerly stood. As it is always the unexpected that happens, so was fi proven in this instance, the main channel of Gold Creek being the last place a slide would be expected to come from. About 1,000 feet a narrow cafion whose walls are absolutely and hundreds of feet. The caffon which is over

and nundreus of reet. Ine canon, when such a twenty feet in width. Near the head of this gorge the creek forks, one entering abruptly from the left, and the other coming in at nearly right angles from the right. At the head of the right-hand fork, three-quarters of a mid distant, is a large slealer, and the supposition is this was the starting point of the huge distant, is a large slealer, and the supposition is this was the starting doint of the huge distant, is a large slealer, and the supposition is this was the starting doint of the huge distant, is a large slealer, and the supposition is this was the starting doint of the supposition of the start of the stamp the mill, then the boarding house, the office to one side.

When the searching party arrived at the scene the only thing visible which could possibly be recognized as a part of the stamp mill was the cupols of the mill building. To it were attached several calles connecting with the transway. The cupola was form from its postition and swing around a distance on way, the caring however, clinking to their anchorage. Timbers, both large and small, were sticking up in the snow scattered promiscuously around, but no one would have imagined these were the remnants of a ten-stamp mill and building and other attendant houses. The side, as near as could be measured by the eye, was about 100 feet wide, forty or fifty feet deep, and extended in length a distance of nearly 3,000 feet.

It was not until the rescuing party had begin to the sum of the buildings, fully 500 feet below the sum of the buildings, fully 500 feet below the sum of the buildings, fully 500 feet below the form of the boarding house was found a last mill distant, and huge builders were encountered which had been carried a mile or more and which is a place of rope. A portion of the roll which had been carried a mile or more and which is point with a saw. Pieces of flooring were found, which were torn, splintered, and twisted up as one would twist a piece of rope. A portion of the feet of the st